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BOOK NOTES.

PROFESSOR DUNBAR, of Harvard University, deserves the thanks of all economic students for reprinting Cantillon's *Essai sur la Commerce* (Boston, Ellis, 1892). Although the importance of Cantillon has been somewhat exaggerated ever since Jevons wrote his famous article in the *Contemporary Review* in 1881, the book contains much to interest the historian of economics. The reprint is supposed to be an exact reproduction of the original. While the resemblance of type is fairly good, the similarity in the general appearance of the book is not so marked, owing chiefly to the fact that in the original the page is both shorter and narrower. Fidelity to the original, moreover, would have demanded the omission of the inserted sentence on the title page, "*en réalité composé par de Cantillon.*" This is obviously the work of some owner of the particular copy from which the reprint was made, and it does not occur in any of the other copies which we have seen.

Dr. Irving Fisher republishes from the Transactions of the Connecticut Academy, Vol. IX, *Mathematical Investigations in the Theory of Value and Prices*. The book presupposes on the part of the reader considerable knowledge of mathematics and acquaintance with the theories of the mathematical economists such as Jevons and Walras. Dr. Fisher's chief claim to originality is in substituting mechanical for graphical illustrations. The remarks on the utility of mathematical method in economics are excellent. The author thinks that mathematical treatment will develop a higher economics, which will be the chosen field for a few investigators and will bear the same relation to ordinary economics that mathematical physics does to ordinary physics. A bibliography of mathematico-economic writings (extended from Jevons) completes the volume.

There is nothing new in the opinion, supported by Adolphe Houdard in his *Premiers Principes de l'Économique*, (Guillaumin et Cie) that political economy, as it has been presented for more than a century in the standard writings, might be resolved into an abstract science of economics and a concrete science of economic sociology

or social economy, but he has rendered a good service by pointing out clearly the advantages that each science has to gain by the suggested separation and specialization. M. Houdard's own volume is concerned strictly with the abstract science of wealth. It is elementary, "orthodox," and admirably clear in its definitions and explanations.

In countries like England and the United States, where economic competition is in great part between equals, the usury doctrine has well nigh received its death blow through the theories of modern industry. But in some of the continental countries, where inequalities are far more marked, the reaction against *laissez faire* in loans has made itself felt. The latest example of this retrograde movement is seen in *Der Wucher und seine Gesetzgebung*, by Hermann Blodig (Vienna, Hölder, 1892). Dr. Blodig's concise history of the usury doctrine adds nothing to our store of information. But when he discusses the reasons and provisions of the modern usury laws in Austria, Germany, Hungary and Switzerland, he is breaking comparatively new ground. Almost all his reasoning refers to the peasants, and he upholds the necessity of some kind of usury laws in cases where undue advantage is taken of dire distress and where there is an obvious inequality between the service and the counter-service. We must be careful not to apply the reasoning of Wall Street to the peasant communities of Eastern Europe.

In *West Barbary, or Notes on the System of Work and Wages in the Cornish Mines* (London, Frowde, 1891), Mr. L. L. Price describes a curious survival of an earlier industrial system. In the tin and lead mines of Cornwall the remuneration of the laborers takes the form of "tutwork" or "tribute." "Tutwork" is an arrangement whereby a body of laborers bid for a certain amount of work at Dutch auction. The men are credited with the contract price of the bargain, they are charged for materials and cost of hauling the rubbish to the surface, and the remainder is divided among them. "Tribute" is a system of percentage of the price realized from the ore. Mr. Price describes the origin, the advantages and the drawbacks of this system, which forms a distinct chapter in the history of wages. He shows the gradual change in the newer form of "tutwork" and is inclined to the belief that the system will be only slowly modified. The monograph is carefully worked out and deserves a wide notice.

Professor Otto Warschauer, of Darmstadt, has begun what promises to be a comprehensive history of socialism under the title

Geschichte des Socialismus und Neueren Communismus (Leipzig, Fock, 1892), and has just published the first of ten or twelve instalments of the work. This first part is devoted entirely to Saint-Simon and his movement. The monograph is written in a rather popular style; but it is difficult to find anything either in the exposition or in the criticism which can really be called a new contribution to the subject. When the author reaches some of the later and less well-known writers this objection will no doubt be removed. The monograph is eminently clear and readable.

Not the least valuable of the recent issues of the Social Science Series is the republication, in a double number, of Lloyd Jones' *Life, Times and Labors of Robert Owen* (London, Swan Sonnenschein), edited and revised by the author's son. It contains, taking it all in all, the fullest and best account of Owen's eventful career yet published. The especial competence of Mr. Lloyd Jones for such a task is evident from his long and close connection with the co-operative movement in England, which in its essential features was virtually the development of Owen's fundamental idea. An attractive feature of this edition is a fac-simile reprint of one of the famous labor exchange notes, recalling a curious experiment which, like that of Proudhon in France, soon came to a disastrous end.

Dr. E. R. L. Gould, of Johns Hopkins University, in *The Social Condition of Labor* (Studies in Historical and Political Science, 1893) analyzes the recent investigation of the department of labor on the cost of production of iron and steel in Europe and the United States. Dr. Gould was at the head of the European portion of the work and speaks, therefore, from personal experience and extensive knowledge. His conclusions are important. The American laborer receives higher wages than the European, lives in a better house, gets better food for less money, spends more on books and newspapers, and economizes less. The foreign-born laborer is better off in this country than at home, and in some cases is better off than the native-born American. At the same time the cost of labor is not appreciably greater here than abroad. This prosperity is due to the intelligence and energy of the laborer. "We should give the principal credit of the higher wages in America, neither to the manufacturer, nor the tariff, nor any other agency, but to the workingman himself, who will not labor for less than will enable him to live on a high social plane."

The two latest numbers of the studies in political science edited by Professor Elster of Breslau and selected from the doctor disserta-

tions of German universities are *Die Finanzverwaltung der Grafschaft Luxemburg im Beginne des 14 Jahrhunderts*, by Martin Mohr, and *Die Nationalgüterveräußerung während der Französischen Revolution*, by Professor Boris Minzes (Jena, Fischer, 1892). Mohr's monograph gives a good picture of early mediæval fiscal administration. The period under review marks the evolution of the manorial economy into the wider territorial or provincial relations. We therefore find, as might be expected, a mixture of revenues from the incidents of feudal tenure together with the beginnings of indirect taxation. Students will also find a good example of the mediæval confusion in the monetary system and the standards of weights and measures. The monograph embodies a painstaking collection of a particular set of local facts, which will serve to illustrate the general theory of fiscal evolution. Professor Minzes' monograph deals with a far more comprehensive topic. In an introductory chapter he gives a summary of the conflicting theories and statements on his subject, and follows this with a statistical investigation based on documents in a number of local archives. Minzes shows that at the outbreak of the revolution the third estate already possessed a large part of the land, or were in a fair way to obtain it; but that the peasants were practically ruined and in the hands of the feudal lords or the growing class of capitalist farmers. Now suddenly about two-thirds of France was confiscated and the land thrown on the market. Although Minzes is unable to ascertain the exact quantity of land sold, or the exact proceeds of the sale, he is able to show from the archives of one or two departments that the purchasers were in large measure non-agriculturists, like bankers, merchants, officials, *etc.*, and that while the significance of the break with feudal conditions cannot be overestimated, the benefit to the husbandmen through this particular measure has been greatly exaggerated. The real importance of the confiscation and sale of the feudal and ecclesiastical property was indirect rather than direct.

An important work has been begun by M. Charles Gomel in his *Causes Financières de la Révolution Française* (Paris, Guillaumin, 1892). The present volume treats of the ministries of Turgot and Necker. M. Gomel makes good use of the pamphlet material and the speeches in the provincial parliaments, and elaborates a very full and interesting, although necessarily not an engaging, picture of the financial condition of France before the advent of Turgot. The efforts and the failures of Turgot, the influence of the Physio-

crats and the minor reforms of Necker which resulted in his first disgrace are successively brought before us. Future volumes are to deal with the comptroller-general, Necker's second ministry and the work of the Constituent Assembly.

An interesting and little-known chapter of economic history has been opened by Dr. J. T. Kussaka in his monograph on *Das Japanische Geldwesen* (Berlin, Prager). The author contends that the decimal monetary system was introduced in Japan in A.D. 767, centuries before its adoption in Europe. In the introduction of metallic money, in the contest between the feudal and the central prerogatives of coinage and in the debasement of the money at various times, Japanese history, in its main outlines, presents features quite familiar to Europeans. Paper money seems to have been introduced from China in 1696. It took the form of legal-tender certificates called *hansatsu*, redeemable sometimes in coin, but frequently in produce, especially rice and other commodities, and in some cases in umbrellas. The paper naturally depreciated until it became well-nigh worthless, and was frequently denuded of its legal-tender qualities by the powerful *daimios*. The second part of Dr. Kussaka's monograph deals with the recent reform of the monetary situation. The author believes that Japan must retain for the present the silver standard, and he approves of the recent change in the national bank system, which until 1883 was modeled on the American plan, but which has lately been endowed with the characteristic features of the English system.

The second edition of Maurice Block's *L'Europe Politique et Sociale* (Hachette et Cie) is an entirely new work. Statistical tables are brought down to the latest date for which the material has been available. As it stands now the work is a scientific, comprehensive and well arranged descriptive sociology of Europe. The first part is an account of the present political organization of Europe, including governmental arrangements, territory and population, finance, army and navy. The second part describes the economic, and the third the social organization. In the latter are included the statistics of relative incomes of the social classes, the moral and educational statistics, and a brief account of various reform movements and agitations.

The third edition of Dr. Charles Letourneau's *La Sociologie d'après l'Ethnographie* (C. Reinwald et Cie) has been revised and corrected in minor details, to bring it into line with late ethnographical results. The book is almost wholly descriptive in its method,

and is already well known as the most convenient manual that we have of the social life of tribally organized communities.

The *Report of the House Committee on Immigration and Naturalization* (Washington, 1892) is mainly an investigation of the expenditures made towards fitting up Ellis Island as a receiving place for immigrants. On the general question the committee regards the present inspection of immigrants as inadequate. Out of 476,658 immigrants arriving in the United States from April 1, 1891, to January 1, 1892, 1003 were rejected as paupers, or liable to become a public charge, and 713 under the contract-labor law. 2401 were admitted on bond. The committee denies that there is any lawful authority for the last course of action. The committee recommends an inspection abroad, holding the steamship companies responsible, and an inspection of the immigration overland. The most amusing bit of testimony is that of Mr. Louis Schade (page 667). who, after a lapse of thirty-five years, re-appears with his theory of a natural increase of 1.38 per cent per annum of the population of the United States. Applying this to the white population of 1790 (3,231,000) he reaches the figure for 1890 of 12,726,033 as the descendants of the original colonists. Adding eight million negroes and five million as margin, Mr. Schade concludes that 25,000,000 represents the descendants of the original inhabitants (white and colored) and 40,000,000 represents the immigrants since 1790 and their descendants. To the question whence came these 40,000,000, our statistics of immigration accounting for only twelve to fifteen million arrivals, Mr. Schade had no answer. Dr. Jarvis long ago pointed out (*Atlantic Monthly*, 1872) that in order to provide Schade's foreign population at successive censuses, every female immigrant between the ages of twenty and forty must have borne during the first decade eighteen children each year; from 1800 to 1810, ten children each year; 1810-20, one child every sixteen and one-half months, etc.

Dr. Albert Leffingwell has presented in a popular way in the little volume entitled *Illegitimacy and the Influence of Seasons upon Conduct* (Sonnenschein) the ordinary statistics of illegitimate births in England, Scotland and Ireland and of the prevalence of suicide, insanity, crimes against the person and births, in the spring and summer months. He advances no new theory in regard to the first phenomenon, unless it be what he calls heredity, viz. that those portions of England and Scotland conquered by the Danes show a heavier illegitimacy than those settled by the Saxons. But, as he

says, if this influence has continued to the present day, it shows "that the admixture of race, upon which we lay so much stress, may indeed have been far less than we have supposed." But a few pages further on he makes the bold prophecy that the African in the United States will before half a dozen centuries have completely merged his race in the three hundred millions of the North American continent. Dr. Leffingwell, in quoting a statement of Sir G. Graham, in 1845, in which the United States, in respect to statistics of health and life, are placed on the same footing with Asia and Africa, observes that the criticism "is at present not quite fair; for as regards Japan there are better vital statistics obtainable to-day than for the United States of America, where the only record of vital statistics for the entire country is made but once in ten years." These are "bitter words but true."

The Italian bureau of statistics has just issued the *Cause di Morte* for 1890 and 1891, with an introduction containing summaries of general demographical interest. The death rate in 1891 was 26.21 per 1000 inhabitants. Conspicuous among the diseases were diarrhoeal diseases (with death rate of 3.5 per 1000 inhabitants), pneumonia (2.6 per 1000), bronchitis (2.5 per 1000), pulmonary tuberculosis (1.0 per 1000), and congestion of the brain (1.0 per 1000). Statistics of deaths from disease depend so much upon classification and correct medical diagnosis, as well as upon local and social influences, that international comparison is not often possible. More interesting are the deaths from accident and suicide. The industrial development of Italy is seen in the great increase in the former—from an annual average of 157 per one million inhabitants in 1865-77 to 340 in 1891. Suicides have also increased from 32 per million inhabitants in 1865-77 to 56.3 in 1891. The analysis of suicides shows the usual facts: 80 per cent were males; the largest number between 20 and 40 years of age; the maximum number in June; the favorite method, drowning among women and firearms among men; most frequent among the military. A curious collection of statistics of duelling (from private sources) closes the report.

Readers who are wholly unacquainted with the theories of primitive property that are associated with the names of Haxthausen, Maurer, Maine, Morgan, Laveleye and Seeböhm will find in *The Evolution of Property*, by Paul Lafargue (Swan Sonnenschein & Co.) a pleasantly written presentation of some of their results as interpreted by a mind of socialistic leanings. A final chapter on *bourgeoise*

(modern) property follows closely the historical chapters of Marx's *Capital*. The volume offers nothing new to the scholar and is too one-sided and radical to be a satisfactory summary for the general reader.

Mr. Walter B. Scaife, in his *Geographical History of America* (Johns Hopkins Studies in Historical and Political Science), gives a condensed *résumé* of existing knowledge concerning the exploration of the eastern and western coasts of the American continents. He also reviews the history of the grants and controversies which have resulted in the establishment of the boundaries of the United States, and of the commonwealths which exist as successors of the original colonies. A chapter, moreover, is devoted to the geographical work carried on by our national government. The most striking and original part of the book is a supplement in which Dr. Scaife makes a careful argument to show that the river called the *Espiritu Santo* by the early explorers and geographers was not the Mississippi, as has been generally supposed, but the Mobile. The author has undoubtedly shown that in many cases, perhaps the majority, the early geographers applied the name in question to rivers other than the Mississippi. But so confused was their knowledge of the region that it would seem impossible to affirm that when they used the name they never had the Mississippi in mind. Several of the older maps have been reproduced as an appendix and add value to the volume.

In the second number of Seminary Papers of the University of Nebraska (Putnam's), Miss Mary Tremain presents an historical sketch of *Slavery in the District of Columbia*. The monograph contains a clear, full and impartial account of the general relation of Congress to the District, the main features of the slavery laws that prevailed there, and the struggle which led to their abolition. It is a good and useful piece of work.

Mr. W. J. Fitzpatrick is a most indefatigable explorer of uncanny nooks and corners in Irish history. The revolutionary episodes at the end of the eighteenth and the early part of the nineteenth century afford admirable opportunities for the exercise of his talent. In *Secret Service Under Pitt* (Longmans, 1892) he shows that he has most successfully availed himself of these opportunities. No Irish conspiracy against English rule has been without its "informer." In some most important instances the identity of the traitor has never been revealed. Mr. Fitzpatrick has taken several cases, notably that of the government's most valuable ally in 1798 and that

of the betrayer of Lord Edward Fitzgerald, and with inexhaustible patience and ingenuity has fixed not only the guilt but the price it brought. His book has the fascination of a romance, while at the same time it throws a hastily light on the political life of the period in Ireland.

Col. G. B. Malleeson's *Refounding of the German Empire* (Scribner's, 1893) contains a superficial account of the political and diplomatic incidents of German history between 1848 and 1871 and a detailed narrative of the wars of the time. It is essentially a military history. The great campaigns of Königrätz, Metz and Sedan are described with much minuteness, though the author's sense of proportion is in some cases defective. He devotes, for example, thirteen pages to Spicheren and only three to Vionville and Mars-la-Tour. It is hard for a reader to follow the tactics of a single battlefield, even down to battalion movements, with maps designed to illustrate only the grand strategy of a whole campaign ; yet this is what Col. Malleeson's readers are in several cases obliged to do.

Government, by J. N. McArthur (Longmans, 1892), presents a scheme of constitutional and administrative organization which, in the author's opinion, would remedy all the defects of existing governmental systems. He finds the first principles of government best exemplified in "village literary societies, cricket clubs" and such bodies, and his system is based upon what he learns from these. There is something Arcadian in the egotism of the introductory chapter. "Many," says the author, "perhaps most people, consider that great ends can be accomplished only by highly complicated means. I think the reverse. My scheme of government here proposed is simple." And though, as he admits, "I may offend the Radical politician" and "I may possibly startle the Conservative," he proceeds without flinching to unfold his plan. The plan itself is by no means so absurd as the introduction would seem to indicate, and it includes some very suggestive propositions, among which may be noted the immediate responsibility of the professional hierarchic head of any department of the administrative service to the representative body, without the intermediary of an "amateur cabinet member." Mr. McArthur's argument is admirably condensed, but a little judicious editing would have made great improvement in his style.